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ABSTRACT

The two parts of this book consider two main facets of nonformal curriculum development: theory and practice. Part I on nonformal curriculum theory has four chapters. Chapter 1 addresses the origins, meaning, purpose, and scope of nonformal education. Chapter 2 examines three major themes in discussions on nonformal education: nonformal education as an instrument of positive change, as a social control mechanism, and the context. Chapter 3 explores the rationale. Chapter 4 examines the rational planning model and three models that have relevance for curriculum development in nonformal education: psychosocial, liberal education, and Bhola's core-interface. The five chapters in Part II on nonformal curriculum practice consider the case of the People's Educational Association of Sierra Leone in integrating population education into adult literacy. Chapter 5 describes nonformal education in the Sierra Leone context where it is an educational response to the problems of out-of-school youth and illiterate adults and an alternative development strategy. Chapter 6 sets forth the rationale for population education and literacy. Chapter 7 describes the process of curriculum integration. Chapter 8 is a case analysis of the population education project. Chapter 9 highlights these conclusions: contingent nature of curriculum development in nonformal education; importance of learner participation; and need for staff development. Appendixes contain a 359-item bibliography and index. (YLB)

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CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT IN NON-FORMAL EDUCATION

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Curriculum Development in Non-Formal Education

J.D. Ekundayo Thompson

AFRICAN ASSOCIATION FOR LITERACY AND ADULT EDUCATION

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To all those who continue to read
the word and the world so that they may
be able to teach

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PREFACE

The publication of this book is timely. It comes at a time when strategies and tactics are being discussed on how to make education, at all levels and in all sectors, accessible, equitable, cost-effective, functional and relevant.

The current discussions at high level international meetings are reminiscent of discussions in the 60s, 70s and 80s which resulted in policies, plans and programmes which were either partially implemented or remained on paper.

Political and economic problems of the newly independent African states did not favour an environment in which policies and plans could be translated into programmes on the ground. In countries where there was action, in the form of pilot projects, such action was led and directed by foreign and local technocrats with questionable understanding of local needs and realities.

Lest we are overwhelmed by the delusions of novelty and innovation that characterise current educational discussions, we should recall past international, regional and national conferences which brought together politicians, policy makers, 'experts' on education and practitioners among others.

Think of the Addis Ababa Conference on the "Development of Education" in May, 1961 which brought together governments and UN agencies to discuss the development of Education in Africa.

Think of the 1965 Teheran Conference and its successor in 1975 which adopted the Persepolis Declaration.

Think of the 1982 Harare Conference which adopted the Harare Declaration.Think of all the UNESCO Conferences, over thirty-five years, on education.

Like the 60s, 70s and 80s, the 90s have witnessed World Conferences and Summits on basic education, the environment, children, population, poverty, and regional conferences on girls, women and popular participation. Education - relevant, accessible, equitable and cost-effective - featured in the discussions, resolutions, and framework for action.

Think of the mountains of publications and research reports on education in Africa.

As the talking and writing go on, the problems of education and underdevelopment continue to defy solution. As the rich become richer, the poor continue to wallow in abject poverty. As Africans continue to slaughter themselves, arms manufacturers are in business as usual. The real problem is that there are too many agenda and interests which are not in the interest of all - not even basic education for all!

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This book is the culmination of a series of curriculum development-related activities in non-formal education in which I participated for a decade (1976-1986). It brings together the results of investigations into the modalities of curriculum development in non-formal education.

The activities and investigations began when in 1976 I was elected assistant national secretary of the People's Educational Association of Sierra Leone, and became engrossed in the planning and implementation of adult and non-formal education programmes. During that period I participated in a number of workshops, seminars, conferences, and study tours in Africa, Asia, Europe, and Canada, all of which had direct relevance to curriculum development in the non-formal sector. In 1980 I was nominated to participate in a Unesco Study Tour of three Asian countries - Thailand, Malaysia, and Bangladesh. In Bangkok, I attended a three-week Group Training Course in Population Education and visited several out-of-school curriculum development projects. In 1983 I participated in a Unesco course on 'Methodology on the Education Associated with the problems of the Use and Abuse of Drugs', in Embu, Kenya, and attended a Commonwealth Meeting on 'Alternative Forms of Post-Primary Education in Africa; held in Mutare, Zimbabwe in 1986. Other meetings of relevance to non-formal curriculum development which I attended include the Paris Conference of the International Council for Adult Education (ICAE) which was followed by the DVV/PAS Seminar in Frankfurt. While the Paris Conference deliberated on the role of adult education in authentic development, the DVV/PAS Seminar considered the relationship between education and work.

Apart from meeting curriculum (programme) developers and other field workers in adult and non-formal education, these meetings provided an opportunity of having hands-on experience in curriculum development.

I should like to thank all those with whom I worked and who, in various ways, helped to facilitate the process of investigating the non-formal dimension of curriculum development.

Special thanks are due to the following:

Dr. G.T. Squires of the School of Adult and Continuing Education of the University of Hull, for facilitating our encounter on the subject; Colleagues at the Institute of Adult Education, Fourah Bay College, German Adult Education Association (DVV), and the African Association for Literacy and Adult Education (AALAE). Special mention goes to Dr. Heribert Hinzen and Paul Wangoola for their professional inputs through dialogue and debate.

Thank you all!

J.D. Ekundayo Thompson

1995

PART I

NON-FORMAL CURRICULUM THEORY

1 NON-FORMAL EDUCATION: ORIGINS, MEANING, PURPOSE AND SCOPE

Non-formal education was conceived as an alternative educational and development strategy as a consequence of the myriad problems which have either resulted from the dysfunction of the educational system or been created by it; problems of high rates of wastage, irrelevant curricula and structure, increase in illiteracy rates (partly due to the high rates of population growth), lack of resources, inefficient use and mismanagement of resources.

Coombs' (1968) examination and analysis of the educational crisis facing the world necessitated the demand for educational innovations including the introduction of non-formal education.

Origins

Although the idea of non-formal education is a recent phenomenon, the practice is as old as education itself. In Africa, for example, there are several accounts of traditional informal education especially before the advent of colonial rule. African traditional education was both functional and instrumental; learning was by doing and participation was an important element in the educative process. The learners, especially children, participated in farming, fishing, weaving and carving among others, in preparation for the assumption of adult roles which included social and political responsibilities.

Moumouni's seminal work, *Education in Africa* (1968), summarises the significant features of traditional education in Africa. In addition to expounding and extolling the virtue and value of such education, Moumouni and others have endeavoured to castigate those who, because of ignorance, have sought to denigrate or deride what in their myopic perception was at best primitive and at worst savage and barbaric. Responsibility for the education and socialisation of

the young was that of the whole 'family'; education was different both in content and process from what was obtained in the formal schools established by the missionaries. The question 'what is education' is not easy to answer; for an activity to be described as educational it has to perform certain functions including the perpetuation and modification of a given culture in particular circumstances.

Inspite of the existence of what can appropriately be described as non-formal education, the term 'non-formal' was never used until Coombs introduced it. Coombs' publication was followed by two research reports commissioned by the World Bank and the United Nations International Children's Educational Fund (UNICEF), and prepared by the International Council for Educational Development (ICED). The first, *New Paths to Learning for Rural Children and Youth* (1973), and the second, *Attacking Rural Poverty: How Non-formal Education Can Help* (1974), focused attention on how non-formal education can help break the cycle of rural poverty. A functional view of non-formal education was adopted, emphasising those programmes which have an element of simultaneity, that is, programmes that would improve agricultural productivity and at the same time raise the general conditions of living. Both studies concluded that non-formal education has the potential to contribute to the development of rural areas.

The reactions to Coombs' analysis of what he perceived as an educational crisis facing the world were varied. On the one hand, the formal education system was criticised and there were demands for relevance in the curriculum, better pedagogy and efficient use of scarce resources. On the other hand, there were demands for a redefinition of the concept of development so that it would take into account the humanistic intangibles, instead of being conceived merely in terms of economic 'growth' as was the case. The neo-classical economists of whom Smith (1776) was the precursor emphasised the 'hardware' of economic development and not the social attitudes necessary for the development process. Other writers, including the Frenchman Saint-Simon, emphasised what he called "the spirit of the people".

It is now generally agreed that the quantitative as well as the qualitative dimensions should be considered in any discussion about economic development.

Meaning, Purpose and Scope

An analysis of the definitions of non-formal education indicates a number of commonalties which would constitute the criteria for a definition that could be universally accepted. These can be categorised as follows:

• Nature of the activity:	Educational
• Purpose:	Learning
• Context/locus of occurence:	Out-of-school youth
• Participation:	Distinct target populations, for example, urban out-of-school youth
• Form:	Organised and structured
• Sponsorship:	Individual or organisation
• Duration:	Short term

It is possible that the criteria may exclude some educational activities especially those which are not considered to be organised. The difficulty in classifying, describing and categorising non-formal education is in its diversity and complexity given the different circumstances in which it is operationalised.

Non-formal education accords with the new development strategies which emphasise the democratisation of the educational process, people's participation and self-reliance in pursuance of a better quality of life. It addresses a number of needs simultaneously and is more immediately productive because the learners use the knowledge and skills acquired.

Grounding Non-formal Education

The development of a non-formal education theory has been characterised by paradigmatic designs which have led to a controversial debate. Leading writers on the subject have come up with models which are, in general, out of touch with reality. Fordham's Model (cf. "The Interaction of Formal and Non-formal Education," in *Studies in Adult Education*, Vol.II, 1979,:1) is criticised because it does not show the interrelationship among **Purposes, Timing, Content, Delivery Systems and Control.** These characteristics are by no means mutually exclusive, each is dependent or related to the other. The tendency to see non-formal education through the lenses of the formal system (a tendency which is also observed in Paulston's typology of non-formal education) infringes the 'right' of non-formal education to an independent conceptualisation, and by

extension makes it a nebulous concept. Non-formal education is juxtaposed with formal education: Formal - non-formal (Fordham, 1979), Non-Formal, Non-School Programmes-Formal School Programmes (Paulston, 1972). If this contrast is not used either in terms of structure or programmes, non-formal might not stand on its own. It seems that there has been little or no attempt to study the "structure" of non-formal education 'systems' in order to isolate those features for example, 'participant perception' with which the 'new' sociology of education is concerned. What, for example, does non-formal education mean for the participants? does 'delivery system' imply the delivery of a 'package' which has been prepared?; these questions, and more, might provide a basis for conceptualising non-formal education without having to use formal education as a prop.

Simkins' model can be criticised on the basis of his 'cheapness criterion'. The notion that non-formal education is cheap has been debunked by Ahmed (1975) in his discussion of the issues relating to costs in his book *The Economics of Non-formal Education: Resources, Costs and Benefits*. The effect of the 'cheapness' argument is the apparent preference for non-formal education by development planners who are loath to allocate the necessary resources, especially financial, for non-formal programmes. Perhaps, this is why Bown (1979) calls 'non-formal education' "an unfortunately negative term...equating lack of formality with lack of resources."

Since the emergence of the notion of non-formal education, the interest and enthusiasm which it has generated has been accompanied by confusion, controversy and misapprehension about its meaning, which like most other educational concepts, has been forced through the academic rite de passage. Responding to the confusion, controversy and misapprehension, Coombs (1976) diligently sought to explain "what non-formal education is - and what it isn't". He explained that non-formal education is a convenient label which covers an assortment of organised educational activities which are taking place outside the formal system.

Non-formal education can and does take place in variable environmental circumstances. Its distinguishing characteristics are flexibility, versatility, and adaptability. It is difficult, however, to imagine how these features can be operationalised in structured situations with all their bureaucratic trappings, and which do not easily lend themselves to change. For non-formal education to be truly non-formal, there must be efforts directed at structural and administrative

transformation accompanied by decentralisation and delegation of authority; otherwise the characteristics stated above will be mere ornaments adorning a misleading nomenclature. La Belle (1976)-is among those who recognise the fact that, viable non-formal education programmes must change people and the constraining social structures.

2 THE NON-FORMAL EDUCATION DEBATE

The non-formal education concept excited the curiosity of educationists, sociologists and economists among others, desirous of laying bare all its ramifications and their implications for the individual and society. A sampling of the available literature reveals the trend of the discussions which include contentious issues and which tended to be polarised between those who see non-formal education as an instrument of positive change and those who are suspicious of it being used as a social control mechanism. Both groups of discussants, however, agree on the context of non-formal education-the rural area. The discussions will be examined under three headings which the writer has labelled 'Positive Change', 'Social Control', and 'Context'.

The Positive Change Argument

The Positive Change Argument assumes that the problems of development are educational and that, given the 'right type' of education, 'development' would follow naturally. This argument can be faulted on several grounds. First, education cannot be divorced from the social, cultural, and human factors of development. These factors are mutually inclusive; any discussion of one must take account of the others. Grandstaff (1976) pointed out that most of the problems of development are primarily economic or political and secondarily educational. Second, non-formal education, by itself, cannot and should not be expected to bring about the 'desired' changes in a society. The dynamics of underdevelopment and the vagaries of politics, together create a complex developmental problem which does not easily lend itself to simplistic educational solutions. Poverty and deprivation in most developing countries are much more the outcomes of corrupt and inept political administration than any educational deficiency. Given the dictatorial and cleptocratic tendencies of most governments in the developing world, the educated, the uneducated, and the non literate are all left bewildered, paranoid, and at times, dehumanised. Bock and

Papagiannis (n.d.) have sought to demystify non-formal education by arguing that educational change must be accompanied by structural change; structural change, in my view, must include not only genuine political reforms aimed at the authentic democratisation of political systems but also cultural transformation, eliminating those factors which impede development.

The Social Control Argument

Non-formal education can be used as an instrument of social control in a situation where the economic and political problems of development obscure the educational. The issue of social control has been extensively examined by the 'new' sociologists of education and other writers including Bowles and Gintis (1976), Young (1971) and Apple (1980).. The 'new' sociologists of education believe that education is political in character and that the political character of knowledge can be seen in the nature of its control. *In Knowledge and Control*, Young, and his associates set out to use the 'sociology of knowledge' to analyse the meaning and status of educational knowledge which is conceived as "shared subjective meanings, socially and historically constructed" (Young, 1971:3). Other writers on the theme of social control include Davies (1976) who sees social control as a process of becoming social [acculturated]. Social control is part of the strategy of political control.

Higgins (1980), noted that social control is manifested in the following forms viz, control as repression, control as integration, control as paternalism and control as conformity, control as self-determination. Given the problems of underdevelopment, in addition to other social, economic and political problems, control in most countries of the developed and developing world can be seen in terms of repression and paternalism. The issue of paternalism has been discussed by Hostler (1987), who examines two of its problems. Dowrie, Loudfoot and Tefler (cited Hostler, loc.cit.:4), see paternalism as any attempt to make students do things intended for their own good. One can argue, on the basis of this explanation, that most out-of-school programmes in developing countries are forms of paternalistic 'control' - control which is deemed good for the individual and the society. In the non-formal education context, the propriety of paternalism is not questioned; what is argued is that, 'education' which controls is indoctrination. Freedom to learn should not be compromised.

The Contextual Argument

The domain of non-formal education, according to most of the available literature, is the rural area. Development agencies, local as well as international, have a preference for rural development which, it is hoped, leads to national development. The appalling situations of squalor and poverty in most urban areas of the developing world render this context argument untenable. Efforts at developing the rural areas have not had much impact on the problems of rural-urban migration; migrants have brought with them their excess baggage of problems hitherto peculiar to the rural areas. The effect of this is that urban areas are increasingly becoming "rural" in several respects. The tendency, therefore, of thinking of non-formal education as a rural phenomenon risks the danger of excluding substantial numbers of people in need of education; these include the urban slum dwellers, the run-away and homeless children and street urchins among others. Non-formal education should be provided for all who need it irrespective of geographical location. Given the "attractions" of the towns and cities, administrative centralisation, kinship and other ties, the traditional "pushing forces", the movement from the villages to the towns seems likely to continue unabated. It is, therefore, not a frivolous speculation to suggest that urban areas in the developing countries will become "rural" in the same way that rural areas in the developed world have become "urban".

Epstein (1967) discusses three aspects of urbanisation (a process of movement and change which creates the possibility of discontinuity with some pre-existing set of conditions) viz., participation in social relations in the towns, changes in behaviour patterns which such participation involves, and "feed-back", that is the process by which the country is influenced by the town. He distinguishes between "urbanisation" and "urbanism" (a relatively large, dense and permanent settlement of socially heterogeneous individuals), and draws attention to the fact that in West Africa, there is less discontinuity between rural and urban social behaviour. Little (1951) provided evidence to show that the African individual who migrates to the town continues to be influenced by tribal culture. Tribal unions in towns foster and keep alive interest in tribal song, history, language, and beliefs, and maintain the relationship between the individual and his native town or village. These unions can also be seen as adaptive mechanisms. Banton (1956:354f) explains that in the process of adaptation tribal systems have been resuscitated.

Summarising the arguments against non-formal education, Barber (1981) claims that general primary education is superior on equity and efficiency grounds. It is argued that non-formal education is inequitable; it inhibits social mobility and is a way of keeping its clientele in inferior positions. However, Evans (1981) in a review of non-formal education concluded that, non-formal education is capable of carrying out educational tasks which the schools cannot.

The controversy which has characterised non-formal education is perhaps due to its conceptualisation in terms of its association with underdevelopment; it is regarded by some as a third world phenomenon and associated with the problems of drop-outs, push-outs, those who have never been to school, the marginalised and the deprived, and these problems loom large in developing countries. It is argued that non-formal education should do for these groups what formal education has not, and cannot do for them.

The Politics of Non-formal Education

What Coombs' publication in 1968 did for non-formal educational thought, the Delhi Conference in 1979 did for non-formal education praxis (action and reflection). The Seventh Commonwealth Education Conference in Accra, Ghana in 1977, recommended a Commonwealth Specialist Conference on non-formal education. This conference was held in Delhi in 1979, on the theme "Non-formal Education and Development". An analysis of the discussions of the conference brings into focus some of the necessary conditions in which non-formal education would thrive namely, economic, social and political transformation, rational employment and incomes policy, sound educational policies with an emphasis on linkages between the formal, non-formal and the informal sectors, making each a complement of the other; besides, non-formal education should be at par with formal education.

The desire for complementarity and comparability will be wishful thinking given the tendency to perceive non-formal education as an instrument that would better the conditions of the poor. Statements such as "non-formal education must serve the poorest of the poor", risk making it an inferior and a low-status option available only for the poor.

The desire to eradicate poverty is laudable but where poverty is emphasised it should be seen in all its dimensions and not limited only to its economic

manifestations. One would argue that in most instances poverty in the developing countries is more than economic deprivation.

The Delhi conference acknowledged the political imperative for the success of non-formal education, but like other conferences of a similar nature, this "sacred cow" was too sacrosanct for an autopsy; Malcolm Adeseshiah noted that the mandate of development educators is political and lamented the fact that, when there is an aversion to something, we say it is political. He emphasised the fact that education is not politically neutral.

The politicality of education generally and non-formal education in particular has been examined by several writers, including D'Hainaut and Lawton (1981) who believe that, politics influence education, and that, that influence is not limited to power which is exercised over teachers and those in educational administration. The attitudes of the powers-that-be can largely influence the attainment of educational ideals.

On the issue of politics and education, Freire (Hall and Kidd, 1978:272) posits that education and politics cannot be dichotomised. Giroux, in introducing *The Politics of Education* (Freire,1985:xiii), states that Freire represents "a struggle for meaning and a struggle over power relations". He explains that, the domain of education is the terrain where power and politics are given fundamental expression. It is in that terrain that the battle for the mind is won or lost.

The political issue of education with particular reference to adult literacy has also been discussed at international conferences. The Declaration of Persepolis (1975) states that "literacy work like education in general is a political act. It is not neutral, for the act of revealing social reality in order to transform it, or concealing it in order to preserve it is political".

Given the volatile political situation in most developing countries, strategies will have to be devised in order to empower people so that they can meaningfully influence political change conducive to the successful implementation of non-formal education and the need for political will which is a *sine qua non* for the successful implementation of programmes. Adult educators and other development educators and workers would have to grapple with this thorny but very important issue of politics and the role of governments in non-formal education.

In the past, efforts have been made to examine the issue of the political imperative, and the role of governments in relation to adult and non-formal education. The Montreal World Conference on Adult Education declared that,

> *Nothing less will suffice than that people everywhere should come to accept adult education as normal, and that governments should treat it as a necessary part of the educational provision of every country.*

Since Montreal in 1960, there has been tremendous progress in the move toward recognising adult education as a "normal" and "necessary" part of the educational provision of most developed countries. Technological advancement and the structural changes which are occurring in the economies of western countries have necessitated training, retraining, and up-dating of knowledge and skills already acquired. In most of the developing countries, however, particularly those in Africa, there has been very little progress and what little progress has been made, is partly, if not wholly, due to external "pressures and influences"; western donor and development agencies supporting adult and other forms of non-formal education programmes which, in their view, constitute factors for change.

The Nineteenth General Conference of UNESCO in 1976 stressed the need for an adult education component, including literacy in the framing and execution of any development programme, and the incorporation of the objectives and goals of adult education policy in national development.

In the same vein, The Fourth International Conference on Adult Education reiterated the need to incorporate training and basic education for adults into comprehensive development plans mixing official and popular efforts in addressing the full range of a society's problems and backwardness. This conference was unique because, for the first time, the issue of the relationship between formal and non-formal education was addressed. The conference noted that "non-formal education should be considered an equal partner with formal education".

3 THE RATIONALE FOR NON-FORMAL EDUCATION

The rationale for non-formal education can be discovered among the many problems which have either resulted from the dysfunction of the formal education system or been created by it. Political independence accelerated the development of formal education because it was seen as an instrument of social and economic development by almost all the newly independent states in Africa and Asia. In Africa, universal primary schooling was the goal of most new governments as the pronouncements at the Addis Ababa conference on 'The Development of Education in Africa' show. The Addis Ababa conference prepared a grand design for the achievement of universal compulsory and free primary education by 1980; a conference in Karachi did the same for the Asian region. Most leaders in Africa and Asia emphasised the development of education which was for them the greatest instrument of change. They found support for their optimism in the United Nations which launched the First Development Decade, an event which brought about a spate of development activities the rationale for which were enshrined in national development plans of varying duration.

Twenty-one years after the Addis Ababa conference, the pledge to universalise primary schooling was rehearsed at the conference of African Ministers of Education and those responsible for Economic Planning, in Harare, Zimbabwe. 'The Harare Declaration', as the conclusions of that conference came to be known, contains a number of strategies to solve the multifarious problems of education and development in Africa.

It is necessary, at this juncture, to analyse some of the reasons for the post-colonial commitment to educational expansion. The following statement by a former president of Sierra Leone, represented in general the thinking of the political leadership in most independent countries:

> *All countries are dependent in the last analysis for their development and prosperity on their resources of trained manpower, but for developing countries this is a particularly important area. Without adequate education provision at all levels, our national aspirations will lack not only drive and vision but also the means of attaining the goals which we set ourselves, the realisation of which depend on the dedicated services of an educated population...*

The reasons for the political leadership's commitment to formal education are not difficult to discern; first, they were themselves products of the formal school system and had succeeded the ruling colonial elite by virtue of their education, among other factors. Second, it was assumed that the progress in Europe, and rightly so, especially after the industrial revolution, was mainly due to education. Third, economists were beginning to examine the effects of education on productivity: the Soviet Academician S.G. Strumilim, during the period when the Soviet Union was attacking the problems of illiteracy, calculated that four years at the primary school increased a man's efficiency by forty-four per cent. Strumilim's research was provoked by the problems of cost faced by the Soviet Union in the implementation of Lenin's decision to give special priority to the eradication of illiteracy.

Problems of Education and Economic Development in the 70s

The decade of the 60s which held so much optimism and promise for development, was followed by the decade of the 70s which brought in its wake, gloom, despair, and disenchantment. The expectations of many were turning into frustration because education was not delivering the development goods. As the demand for more education escalated, so did the costs, in most countries up to twenty-five per cent of the national budget. Educational expansion was accompanied by dilution of standards, qualification escalation, educated unemployment, underemployment and rural-urban migration among others. The problems of the educational system were compounded by political and economic instability, coups d'état, shortage of foreign exchange mainly due to a drop in export trade earnings, balance of payments difficulties and widespread official

corruption. Formal education was beginning to face a serious crisis of confidence which necessitated research and different types of studies for the purpose of diagnosing the causes of its dysfunction. 'Education and Development' in developing countries thus provided a fertile ground for exploration and discovery by academics, writers and other interested professionals. Examples of works in this area include Frederick Harbison and Charles A. Myers, *Education, Manpower and Economic Growth* (1963); James S. Coleman, *Education and Political Development* (1965); C. Arnold Anderson, 'Economic Development and Post-Primary Education' in Don.C. Piper and Taylor Coles (eds.), *Post Primary Education and Political and Economic Development*; Philip Foster, 'Ethnicity and the School in Ghana', in *Comparative Education Review* (1962); and David Abernethy, *Education and Political Development in Southern Nigeria* (1969).

Several issues which impinge on education and development were raised and discussed; issues relating to the limitations of educational planning, the politics of educational development, the problems of equity and efficiency, relevance of the curricula, teacher training and the role of the school as an agent of socialisation. On the limitations of educational planning it was argued that policy makers seemed insensitive to the historical, sociological and political factors that impose constraints upon the ability of governments to effect radical transformation in the structure and functioning of educational systems.

Coombs (1968) analysis of the crisis facing education in the world resulted in an avalanche of criticisms of the formal education system. Criticisms were levelled from different points of view ranging from those of the progressives to those of the marxists; the prescriptions which were suggested for the solution of the problems ranged from those of the conservatives to those of the radicals. The works of Illich (1970), and Reimer (1971) can be cited among those of the latter.

The criticisms of the formal education system should be looked at from two different but not unrelated points of view - the effects of education on the individual and on the country. The direct effects of education on the individual are evident in terms of the private rates of return but less evident on the country in terms of the social rates of return. It cannot be said, therefore, that education or schooling has not had the desired effects; the question which should be asked is, how can the individual use his or her education for the development of the country? This question raises another problem namely, that of the educated unemployed, the 'irrelevance' of whose education renders them incapable of

making positive contributions to the development of the country. Some writers would argue that the problem of the educated unemployed is not the result of the so-called dysfunction of the educational system or a reflection of the economic value of education but often the result of lack of educational planning. It is also argued that certain types of knowledge and aptitudes can easily be overproduced in relation to economic demand while other types may be in short supply. Asia is cited as an example of the places where this has happened.

The answer which is proposed by those who support this argument is better economic development planning in relation to educational possibilities and measures to relate education to specific national and local economic and social needs.

Attempts at Solving the Educational and Development Problems

Given the complexity of the educational problems and their causes, easy solutions were not readily available. There were external interventions, technical advice, and experts who proposed various remedies on the basis of their analyses of the problems and their inclinations for particular development theories. The remedial measures which were proposed ranged from curricular reforms to a shift of emphasis from higher education to basic education. The absence of relevant and reliable data in developing countries compounds the problem of proposing solutions which would respond to real problems. What is more, proposals for curricular reforms have largely been based not on technical and professional considerations but on political expediency. In Sierra Leone, for example, the government undertook, under the aegis of the Institute of Education, University of Sierra Leone, innovative curricular reforms in Mathematics, English Language, Science, and Social Studies. The curricular reform activities in Mathematics and Science were abortive due to lack of official support and adequate budgetary provision.

The University of Sierra Leone, responding to a call for leadership in educational planning, undertook, with external financial assistance, an education review; the report *Sierra Leone Education Review: All Our Future* (1976), never received a government endorsement or rejection in the form of a White Paper. What the 'review' activities and the report show is that there is no scarcity of

ideas; translating ideas into concrete programmes became problematic in a situation of scarce resources and lack of political commitment.

The issue of academic versus vocational curriculum emerged during the debate on the efficacy of non-formal education. The low status of vocational institutions vis-a-vis their academic counterparts, and the negative social attitudes towards manual work explain the preference for academic or non-vocational education and the preference for white collar jobs which the public sector cannot provide. Several writers including Ahmed and Foster have rejected the arguments in support of vocationalisation. Ahmed's (1975) rejection is based on his observation of the disastrous consequences which such measures have had in a number of developing countries. He believes that the problems of the labour market and the overall economic growth cannot be solved simply by taking such educational measures in the school. He supports the view held by many educationists that, primary and secondary schools can make an important contribution to the preparation for productive work by facilitating a sound general education (my emphasis), and helping students to build a foundation of basic learning skills to enable them continue to learn, and "acquire attitudes and values conducive to being productive members of society".

According to Foster (1965), curriculum change alone is not as effective in influencing attitudes and dispositions as has been supposed. In his examination of what he called 'the vocational school fallacy', he contends that it was wrongly assumed that the school would be able to produce the necessary middle-level manpower for the labour market.

General versus Specific Education

A holistic approach to educational development does not encourage compartmentalisation of education into general and specific. The vocationalisation of the curriculum in developing countries can be seen as an unsuccessful attempt to have the schools perform a function - the provision of specific education - for which they are ill-prepared.

The introduction of formal vocational/technical education is, therefore, an attempt to provide specific types of education outside the formal school system. Reference can be made to the Trade Centres in Sierra Leone, the Brigades in Botswana, and the Village Polytechnics in Kenya. It was hoped that, apart from

contributing to the solution of the school-leaver problem, these vocational/technical institutions would also contribute to solving the problem of shortages of middle-level skilled technicians, craftsmen and other blue collar workers. The philosophical foundations on which some of these institutions were built can be said to be weak; they are formal in several respects and have failed to produce the kind of middle-level manpower that they were expected to provide. Coombs *et al.* (1974), identified a number of problems faced by these institutions. These include:

> *high operational costs which make it impossible for many children to be served; difficulties of recruiting and retaining good technical teachers and inability to compete for good teachers with the private sector and government agencies; inappropriate training which does not meet the demands and needs of employers; obsolete equipment and unemployable graduates.*

In addition to the problems summarised above, there is also the problem of the very low status of vocational institutions in the public estimation. Most of them are seen as 'dumping grounds' for those who are considered to be incapable of surviving in the normal secondary schools but who need to be 'interned' until the age of maturity.

The introduction of 'new' systems of education in a number of African countries dubbed 8-4-4 and 6-3-3-4 among others is, in my view, an attempt to extend the duration of primary schooling in the hope that it will lead to a sound basic (general) education.

African countries seem to be poised in the 90s, to repeat the mistakes of the 60s. The striking difference between the 60s and the 90s, is that whilst in the 60s the mistakes were "planned" in the 90s they are not because the so-called educational reforms are externally orchestrated. What is needed is a systematic and comprehensive planning of education taking into account the needs of the individual, the needs of the country concerned and its position among the community of nations. What is more, planning should be based on socio-economic statistics which, to a great extent, are reliable and not 'doctored' to serve the interests of a group of people. Those who make educational decisions should be those whose children, and their children's children will be affected by the decisions made.

4 THE NON-FORMAL CURRICULUM

CONCEPTUALISING 'CURRICULUM' IN NON -FORMAL EDUCATION

The concept of curriculum development in the domain of non-formal education can be properly understood only when the meaning of "curriculum" is clarified. Most of the definitions of curriculum are related to the school and its clientele. The range and diversity of meanings show the confusion and disagreement which have characterised the field of study. Siogel (Unesco, 1981:82), has noted twenty-seven different ways of defining "curriculum". If curriculum development is to be defined, the confusion over curriculum should first be resolved otherwise the process of its development, as Becher (1987) rightly points out, will be confusing.

The term "curriculum" has been equated with "syllabus", "course of study" or "subject". The implication here is that it is something which should be taught and learned. It is given as a *fait accompli*.

Another view of the curriculum is that, it is the sum total of the experiences generated by pupils during the formal instructional process (Kelly, 1986). Popham and Baker (1970:48) in an apparent reference to Kelly's definition contend that definitions of the curriculum which refer to "experiences" of the learner muddle up the means-ends distinctions that make curriculum investigable. They emphasise outcomes in their definition because outcomes constitute the ends of education. One is not sure whether due consideration was given to the means or whether the word "planned", describing learning outcomes, suggests otherwise.

Turner (1964) uses the word "planned" to describe conditions and events to which pupils are exposed "for the purpose of promoting learning". To conditions and events he adds framework of theory whose purpose is to give coherence to the conditions and events.

Lawton (1973) focuses on the cultural dimension of curriculum. Culture in this sense is sociological and anthropological encompassing everything from knowledge, to beliefs, art, morals, laws and customs among others.

An analysis of all the definitions would reveal two main elements viz., What is taught - whether exogenously planned or endogenously generated, the mode of learning - in groups or individually, and the locus of learning, within an institution or outside it.

Although the use of the term has for a long time been associated with formal education there is a need to conceptualise it in the non-formal context and generate theory that would ground it. This is a task which non-formal educators can not relinquish.

The case for curriculum theory in non-formal education is supported by the following arguments:

Existing curriculum theory leans heavily on the formal education system resulting in the tendency to transplant this theory into the non-formal sector. Rogers (1987), justifies the necessity "to adapt what is known about curriculum" because there is a paucity of material related to curriculum in adult education. Another justification is that most of the work on curriculum has been done in relation to schools. Presenting a case for curriculum in the non-formal or out-of-school context, D'Hainaut (Unesco, 1981) contends that the concept of curriculum is limited to the idea of conscious, organised but not necessarily formal educational action and asserts that non-traditional forms of education require much more careful preparation.

Griffin (1983) laments the uncritical acceptance of the curriculum categories of "schooling" by adult education professionals. The school curriculum, it is argued, is accepted because it is valid, valued and recognised. It is an accepted means of bestowing status on those who pass through the educational system. Non-formal education curriculum would be equally valid, valued and recognised if those who go through the system are credible in terms of their learning, and application of it towards worthwhile purposes. Such learning should be the evidence of change resulting from a process freely negotiated by the learner and the facilitator. Negotiating a process of learning is the essence of curriculum in the non-formal context.

In recent times there has been a noticeable shift from the "social welfare provision" aspect of non-formal education to the psycho-social and pedagogical

dimensions of the non-formal curriculum - a shift from subjects that are taught to the methods and processes of teaching and learning. This shift has undoubtedly been influenced by a number of writers including Paulo Freire whose ideas as expressed in *Pedagogy of the Oppressed; Education: the Practice of Freedom; Cultural Action for Freedom;* and *The Politics of Education,* have necessitated a re-examination of the teaching and learning methods in non-formal education. Other works in the revolution of the non-formal curriculum thought include Rogers' *Freedom to Learn: For the 80s;* Tough's *Learning without a Teacher;* Griffin's *Curriculum Theory in Adult and Life-long Education:* Legge and Chadwick's *Curriculum Development in the Education of Adults, The Modern Practice of Adult Education;* and Squires' *The Curriculum Beyond School.* It is important to note that several publications on "the teaching of adults" have also contributed to the development of the non-formal curriculum; many of these are based on research. It has been discovered, for example, that adults possessed certain unique characteristics as learners that were violated by the pedagogical model. An alternative, the andragogical (the art and science of helping adults learn) model evolved. This model identified several characteristics of adults that must be taken into account for effective learning.

All of the above show that the need for a curriculum other than that for children in school has been felt and is being addressed. Cropley (cited Dave, 1976:224f.), identified three types of curriculum in addition to that for the young viz., "curriculum for beyond conventional school age", "curriculum for work" and "curriculum for life".

CURRICULUM DESIGN AND DEVELOPMENT

The activities which result in the production of curricula are variously described. Among the terms in use are "curriculum development", "curriculum design", "curriculum construction", "curriculum reform", "curriculum planning". Richards' *Curriculum Studies Annotated Bibliography,* lists twenty-three titles with the words "curriculum development", and six with "curriculum design", out of a total of four hundred and nineteen titles. Several authors have used the terms curriculum development, and curriculum design interchangeably.

It is necessary for the purpose of conceptual clarity to examine some of the terms in use. Pratt (1980) defines 'Design' as a systematic process of selecting

the elements, techniques and procedures that constitute some object or endeavour.

'Design' is criticised on the grounds that it implies pre- specification and therefore, cannot be applied to the human and creative enterprise of education. It is argued that education is an art and as such it is intuitive and spontaneous, and does not, therefore, lend itself to design. According to Papanek (Pratt, 1987:152) the word "design" connotes sharpness and precision. Those who are technically minded are attracted by "design" which is repugnant to the humanistically oriented.

Proponents of the term design argue that definitions which seek to separate art and design are self-defeating because the relationship between art and design is reciprocal. Simon (cited Pratt, 1987) suggests that, the core of all professional training is design. It is the hallmark which distinguishes the sciences from the professions.

"Development", on the other hand, has connotations of gradual evolution and growth. Beacher (1987) posits that the term "curriculum development" is ambiguous, ambiguity which is brought about by the confusion over the concept of curriculum. Nicholls and Nicholls (1978:14) define curriculum development as the process of planning learning opportunities which are intended to bring about certain desired changes in pupils and the process of assessing the extent to which the changes have taken place.

The Centre for Educational Research and Innovation (CERI), (Becher, 1978), states three criteria in its attempt to define "curriculum development", as follows:

Institutionalisation:	The curriculum must be institutionalised.
Purpose:	It must generate a process of change which is intended to lead to improvement. The process must have a mechanism for feedback and evaluation.
Context:	It must lend itself to description in the school context.

The first and third criteria would constrain the use of the term "curriculum development" in non-formal education: the reason is that non-formal education

is not institutionalised although it makes use of institutions, and it is not formalised, a characteristic which makes it depart from "the actual practice of school and classroom". The second criterion, however accords with non-formal education practice.

In this book, the term curriculum development will be used for two main reasons; first to imply a rational process of curriculum development although the process cannot be completely rational, and second, to imply growth and change - two important elements of education. The use of the term, however, will not exclude "curriculum design".

The Rational Planning Model

The dominance of the school curriculum has, in the past, been reflected in the models of, and approaches to curriculum development in the non-formal sector. The 'rational' or 'systematic' approach has dominated the field for almost five decades. The works of Franklyn Bobbitt viz *How to make a curriculum* (1924) *Curriculum investigation* (1924), and Charters (1924) set the stage for what was to become a systematic approach to the planning of educational experiences. Bobbitt and Charters wanted to see a scientific approach to education; Bobbitt, in particular, suggested that educational planning required the specification of objectives. Their ideas on curriculum planning crystallised into a movement which became known as the objectives movement. Its members included Ralph Tyler who proposed four fundamental questions (which Lyn Pesson converted for use by non-formal education curriculum developers) the answers to which should underlie any curriculum development activity. Lyn Pesson's questions have been reformulated as follows:

- what should be the educational purposes of the school?
- what educational measures should be taken to attain the educational purposes?
- how can the above educational measures be organised?
- how would we know that the educational purposes are being attained?

Tyler saw a very strong relationship between objectives and evaluation; he suggested that if objectives are defined in terms of the intended student behaviour, that behaviour could then be evaluated in the light of the intentions.

The objectives movement gained further momentum with the emergence of the works of Bloom *et al*, (1956), Krathwohl (1964), Mager (1962), and Taba (1962). It is argued that the specification of objectives facilitates evaluation and the selection of teaching and learning strategies, minimises ambiguities and difficulties of interpretation, and provides a framework for the guidance of teachers, students and others. Mager (1962) believes that objectives are "useful tools" in the design, implementation, and evaluation of instruction; they help in the management of the instructional process and the preparation of the means of finding out whether the instruction has been successful.

Hirst (1969) contends that if objectives are not stated, such an omission would be a transgression of a basic principle of rationality because for an activity to be rational it must be goal directed. The forcefulness with which the proponents of the objectives approach advanced their arguments was matched by the weight of their opponents' criticisms; prominent among these are Macdonald-Ross (Golby et al., 1975:351f), Kelly (1982), Eisner (1967a, b,1969), and Stenhouse (1971). Macdonald-Ross (ibid) posits that "no matter how well objectives are specified initially, major design problems remain which cannot be solved inside the conceptual framework of the systematic approach". He suggests an alternative conceptual framework "which takes into account the structure of knowledge and views the interaction between teacher and student as a defined type of conversational dialogue". One ought to underscore "the interaction between teacher and student as a defined type of conversational dialogue" because of its implications for non-formal education methodology which emphasises the dialogical approach advocated by Freire (1970, 1971, 1975, 1976), and others including Rogers (1983).

The systematic curriculum development models represented by Tyler's and Wheeler's, cannot be transplanted into the non-formal curriculum development context without adaptation or modification. Non-formal curriculum should be learner-led and not content-led; the learner, in the final analysis, should determine what is taught and how.

Criticisms of the Rational Planning Model

Since the experiments of Taylor in 1911, and their effects on curricular and administrative aspects in the educational milieu, the activities of educationists have been greatly influenced by developments in industrial and business concerns. The principles and procedures of organisation development and management are beginning to characterise educational institutions inspite of the fact that they are markedly different. These principles, which have been founded on the notion of rationality, have in turn generated a good deal of criticisms by, for example, Simon (1945), and Lindblom (1959). The notion of rationality is criticised on the grounds of being idealistic and unrealistic. Decision-making, it is argued, is constrained by human behaviour which is highly unpredictable and subject to the vagaries of environmental circumstances. Human behaviour is not always determined by the laws of rationality.

Lindblom (1959) suggests in the place of the rational model, an approach which he describes as "successive limited comparisons", or incrementalism. This approach can be discerned in the mechanisms such as formative evaluation, which have been built into programme planning; mechanisms which seek to ensure the identification of gaps and the taking of action to fill them. Formative evaluation is an important component in most out-of-school curriculum development programmes. The practice of formative evaluation has come about as a result of the disastrous consequences which have resulted from the old practice of summative evaluation - evaluation which is done at the completion or termination of the programme when it is no longer possible to correct mistakes already made.

The notion of rationality has assumed a number of meanings depending on the context in which it is used. Simon (1959) defines rationality in relation to planning. Carley (1980) suggests five sequential activities which rationality implies viz.

Problem identification and goal setting;
Determination of means to solve the problems;
Prediction of consequences of each means;
Comparison of each means to goal set; and
Choice of best means.

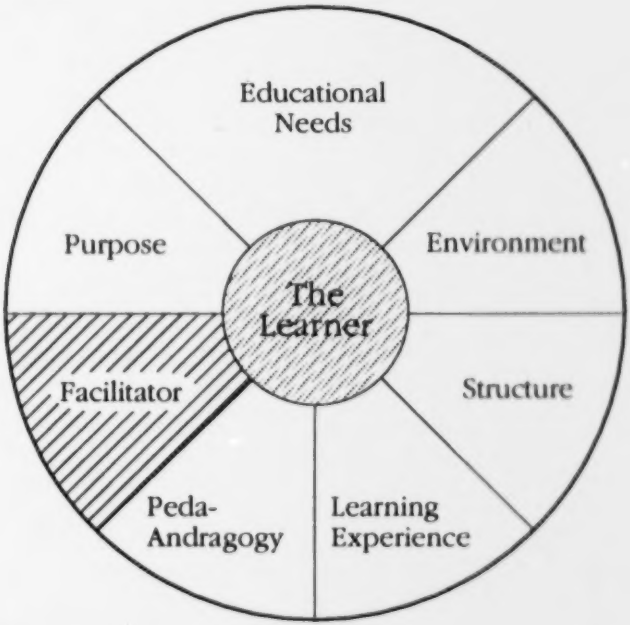
Carley, however, recognises that the rational model constitutes an ideal type which is "an abstraction from reality". He identifies a number of problems with the rational model among which is the impossiblity of garnering all the data on which a decision should be based.

Most of the works on curriculum development are related to the formal system. It is only recently that attention has been paid to curriculum and its development in the out-of-school sector. Some practitioners prefer to use the term "programme development" in place of "curriculum development". It is now fashionable to speak of programme design and development in non-formal education because the term 'programme' is said to provide more variables in practice than does the curriculum. Are the terms 'curriculum' and 'curriculum' development conceptually different in non-formal education? Griffin (1983) believes that there is nothing in the meaning of curriculum to preclude its relevance in educational contexts other than those of schools. The curriculum is fundamentally concerned with 'what is taught and learned'.

Determinants of Non-formal Curriculum

An attempt will be made here to identify and discuss those factors which, in the author's view, ought to determine the non-formal curriculum. Some of the factors are major, depending on the degree of influence which they exert on the curriculum. The following illustration attempts to synthesise the 'more important elements' of the three non-formal curricular models which will be discussed later. It is proposed that "staff", "student", and "setting" (environment) are central to the development of a non-formal curriculum. These, and the other factors or contingencies (Squires, 1988) make curriculum development in non-formal education markedly different from that which obtains in the formal sector.

The following is an attempt to show those factors which determine the non-formal curriculum.



THE LEARNER

The learner should determine what is taught, how, where and when it is taught. A symbiotic relationship between the learner and the facilitator should be created. Freire (1970) observes that the learner, through his experience can be a source of knowledge for the facilitator. What can the facilitator learn from the learner?; this question assumes that the learner is a resource for learning. This is true to a greater extent given the experiences of most learners in the non-formal and adult education situation, though it may not be obvious that the learners can give, given the psychology of dependence and the problem of paternalism which has characterised most non-formal learning situations.

EDUCATIONAL NEEDS

Clark (1986) contends that the phrase "educational needs" is ambiguous because it implies that the need is for education, and that education is good in itself. It is now generally agreed that the needs of the learners should determine the curriculum. Mention has been made of the possibility of a conflict between what are seen as individual needs and the needs of the society or community. It is not always that these needs converge. Care should, therefore, be taken when determining needs to locate a point of convergence, or to try and ensure that the needs of the individual or group synchronise with those of the community.

A lot has been written and said about needs identification, and novel approaches are being adopted to identify real needs. In his paper on "The Needs Meeting Ideology", Armstrong (1982) identifies a number of problems which are likely to falsify needs. Needs identification raises a number of philosophical, sociological, political and moral questions, which cannot be easily resolved in their identification, ascription or prescription or by simply taking action to address them.

The report on the "Educational Experiences and Needs of Adults", undertaken by the Advisory Council for Adult and Continuing Education (ACACE, 1982) in England and Wales, shows the importance of needs identification for the provison of a data base upon which to plan educational programmes. Choosing a curriculum means understanding the needs and interests of the learners, and their environment. To do this assumes the fullest possible participation by the learners. In another publication, the ACACE identified a number of basic learning needs for adults which, in my view, are also appropriate for out-of-school youth.

PURPOSE

Given the heterogeneity of the non-formal education clientele and the diversity of their needs, there are bound to be several purposes which a non-formal curriculum should address. These purposes should not be seen as independent; they relate to the multifarious needs which the ACACE, for example, has identified, and which have relevance in the non-formal context. Purposes ask why?; a number of specific reasons can be proposed for a non-formal education enterprise.

LEARNING EXPERIENCES

Reference has been made to the need for the resources of the learners to be utilised because of their implications for the teaching-learning transaction. There is a lot which the learners can give by way of enriching the learning process; a mutually supportive relationship between facilitator and learner should be established for their mutual benefit. Knowles (1978) and others have written extensively on the value of the learners' experiences.

PEDA-ANDRAGOGY

Non-formal education does not have 'a method' as such. Any engagement in the process would involve the use of several methods which would be determined by the learner or group of learners. It is important to note that there is a substantial number of people (adults and children) who have never been to school, and those who have been but dropped out, who are participants in non-formal education. Adult education methods may not be used to teach or facilitate the learning of children. The facilitator would have to show ingenuity in the choice of methods given the situation which exists at any one time; the choice of methodology would be eclectic and contingent upon environmental circumstances.

The contraction of pedagogy and andragogy into **peda-andragogy** evidences the fact that pedagogy and andragogy are useful methods of facilitating non-formal education. It also indicates the contingent nature of non-formal methodology which depends on a number of variables none of which can be held constant.

STRUCTURE

Structure means the internal validity and efficiency of the curriculum. The Squires' model of general education can be used to underpin this explanation. According to his model general education is brought about by a curriculum process which develops **Knowledge, Ability and Culture**, although the weighting given to, and the relationship between the **Knowledge, Ability and Culture** dimensions are unclear.

ENVIRONMENT

Environment in this context means the learning situation, that is, the milieu in which the teaching-learning transaction takes place. There is no commonalty in learning situations in non-formal education because of the diversity which obtains. Each situation is different and environmental variables such as the nature of the group of learners, resources, and organisational structure have tremendous influences.

Given all of the above factors one would conclude that the appropriateness of any model in the development of curricula in the non-formal sector would depend on the extent to which these factors are taken into account.

CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT MODELS

Three models which have relevance for curriculum development in non-formal education will now be examined.

It is difficult to conceive of a curriculum development model that can be described as non-formal because of the contingent nature of non-formal education, the heterogeneity of the clientele, and contextual variability. The relative strengths and weaknesses of the systems model have been discussed. Three other models namely, the Psycho-social or Freirian, the Liberal Education, and the Core-Interface can be considered in a discussion of non-formal education curriculum development models.

The Psycho-social Model

According to Freire, the social and political contexts in which education takes place are very important. He suggests that an educational programme consists of two phases - the thematic research and the curriculum or programme. Thematic research is a process by which the learners begin to perceive social reality; significant themes which have relevance for the learners are identified and problematized, and presentations made in what he called "circles of culture"; these are small groups of about twenty. A variety of methods are used in presenting the themes. Freire believes that a dialectical approach should be used in dealing with the problems of society.

The enthusiasm with which the Freirian approach has been tried, especially in developing countries, has been accompanied by criticisms; critics suggest that Freire's approach is a breeding ground for conflict. There is no intention to go into the merits or demerits of the criticisms. What should be noted, however, is that the approach is situational, and that it can be employed in non-formal education.

The Liberal Education Model

This model has been of long standing in the traditional adult education curriculum of the university extra-mural provision and the Workers' Educational Association (WEA). The learner is central in the liberal education process; it is, therefore, similar to Freire's method of "conscientization", or Mezirow's "perspective transformation". According to Mezirow, perspective transformation is a process of emancipation which leads to critical awareness. It is a learning process in which adults come to recognise their culturally induced dependency and strive to overcome it.

The purpose of liberal education is to bring about desirable or worthwhile states of mind for individuals through induction into "forms of knowledge". Jarvis (1985) presents three possible interpretations of liberal education viz., education in the liberal arts, education of the free man, and education to free the mind. A liberal education encourages the exploration of assumptions and the questioning of beliefs.

Bhola's Core-Interface Model

Another model which is worth considering is "the core/interface model of curriculum development in non-formal education" by H.S. Bhola. The model consists of two main elements viz., core and interface. The core consists of objectives, strategies and evaluation. The interfaces (needs assessment, institutional and social support, instructional development), are complementary and supplementary to the core model. Bhola's model is important because it brings into focus the need for organisational and instructional (materials) development.

These models show that non-formal education curriculum development cannot be confined to one model; several approaches ought to be considered in its development. The skills of the curriculum developer should be ingeniously deployed in utilising the various approaches in the absence of the approach to non-formal curriculum development.

In general, curriculum development in non-formal education has tended to proceed along conventional lines. The systematic approach which is in use in the development of curricula in the formal system can also be discerned in the non-formal sector. The use of this approach has been dictated by expediency or convenience - simply using what is there. The resources which are available, for instance, are those of the formal system. Such a tendency has a number of practical constraints such as contextual unsuitability and model irrelevance. The curriculum in non-formal education is characterised by commonality and diversity, given the diversity of the needs and the heterogeneity of the clientele who include adults, adolescents, out-of-school youth, farmers and extension agents, among others. Callaway's (1971) classification of non-formal education clientele gives an indication of how diverse their needs could be and how varied the curricula or programme to meet the needs. What this diversity of needs and variety of curricula suggest, is that curriculum development in non-formal education is situational, choice of methods, techniques, approaches and models depend on the situation.

PART II

INTEGRATING POPULATION EDUCATION INTO ADULT LITERACY

THE CASE OF THE PEOPLE'S EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF SIERRA LEONE

5 NON-FORMAL EDUCATION IN SIERRA LEONE

Non-formal education in the Sierra Leonean context is an educational response to the problems of out-of-school youth and illiterate adults, and an alternative development strategy whereby educational provisions are directly related to individual, national and community developmental needs and goals.

The problem of young people who drop out of school and those who leave school without marketable skills has been the concern and preoccupation of governments, development agencies and researchers for quite some time. Although the drop-out problem looms larger in developing countries, the school leaver problem is a global one for which a variety of measures, to solve it, have been tried. In Britain, for example, the Youth Training Scheme (Y.T.S.) was conceived as a solution not only to the school leaver problem but also to the general problem of unemployment in the 16-19 age cohort.

Given the differences of the causes of the problems of out-of-school youth and their socio-economic underpinnings, solutions from developed countries cannot be transferred, however admirable and cost-effective they might seem. In the developing countries, one cannot talk of the problems of the 'transition from school to working life', in the same vein as it is being discussed in the developed countries because schooling in the developing countries is not the rule; thousands, if not millions of children in some African countries have never been to school.

Studies relating to the problems of out-of-school youth are recent. In several African countries documentation relating to the problem is either limited to confidential official reports or non-existent. United Nations agencies such as UNESCO, the International Labour Organisation (ILO), and the Commonwealth Secretariat have generated useful information on the problem of youth unemployment in Africa, and have articulated strategies to meet their educational, training and employment needs.

There is a paucity of information on the problem of out-of-school youth, and unemployment in Sierra Leone. One of the earliest studies is by Wood (1969) who examined the organisation and the work of the Boys' Society in Freetown. In a comparative study on Informal Education and Development in Africa, Wood (1974) limited the case study in Sierra Leone to the Boy's Society as if that was the only organisation which was concerned with the education and training of out-of-school youth. His treatment of the subject not only renders the validity of his work questionable, it makes it a misleading piece of information. If Wood had given the rationale for his choice of the Boys' Society, even without mentioning the existence of other organisations, his study could have been justified. The Boys' Society is one of the many organisations active in the out-of-school sector. It is not a national organisation as the title of Wood's (1969) study suggests; it is headquartered in Freetown where its activities are concentrated. There are national organisations which cater to the educational and training needs of young people; these include the Young Men's Christian Association (YMCA) and the People's Educational Association of Sierra Leone (PEA).

An examination of some of the programmes for the out-of school youth would reveal an absence of systematically planned educational and training programmes which are based on well-thought-out objectives. What most of the organisations did was to provide opportunities for the young to utilise their energies in the form of recreation and civic undertakings. The primary aim was to keep young people off the streets and ultimately out of mischief. Little was done by way of systematic studies to ascertain the causes of their delinquency or to identify their training needs within the context of the existing socio-economic conditions. The available research on youth movements in developing countries (De Graff, 1982) suggests that youth movements are typically bound up with rural development involving manual labour.

Non-formal Education for Adults

The use of the term non-formal education in place of 'adult education' or 'education of adults' is justified in view of the limitations which the latter terms impose on the activities in which adults are engaged and which have an educational import for other sub-groups in the population. In Sierra Leone, the term 'adult education' generally refers to literacy activities which are undertaken

by voluntary agencies and the work of the extra-mural department. It never embraced the activities of the informal sector, activities with tremendous economic implications for the survival of the majority of Sierra Leoneans. The term non-formal education, is used in this book to cover the entire body of **organised** and **unorganised** educational activities for all groups and sub-groups in the population. The Directory of Adult Education Providers in Sierra Leone lists 114 organisations involved in adult and other educational activities. The organisations can be categorised according to their programmes, target groups, sources of funds, controlling agencies, personnel and geographical areas of operation. These criteria are more numerous than those used by Mee and Wiltshire (1978) to classify adult education providers in Britain. The Directory does not include groups in the informal sector apparently because they are not considered to be educational in character.

The Poor Socio-economic Conditions in Sierra Leone and the Role of Non-formal Education in their Improvement

To many outside observers Sierra Leone is a paradox; it is one of the poorest countries in the world and yet one of the richest in terms of natural resources. With a population of 4.4 million, a land area of 27,000 square miles, most of which is arable, rich mineral deposits especially gold, diamonds and iron ore, Sierra Leone could easily become one of the most economically prosperous countries if there was honest political leadership and sound economic management.

Since independence in 1961, the country has witnessed a downward trend in its economy and a reduction in the quality of life of its people. This situation has come about partly as a result of adverse international economic conditions, but largely as a result of official corruption and large scale mismanagement of resources.

Wide scale corruption and mismanagement of the economy was due, in part, by the absence of checks and balances due to the systematic conversion of the democratic form of governance inherited at independence into a dictatorship, resulting in the people being rendered incapable of bringing about change even at the ballot box. The situation in Sierra Leone was not, before the military take-over of 1992, dissimilar from that which obtained in most African countries. With the majority of the people being illiterate and the existence of a weak press,

a very strong executive presidency found favourable conditions for growth. Mass education, including civic and political education, and a process of conscientization have been suggested as means of forestalling dictatorial tendencies and as a strategy whereby social, economic and political transformation can be facilitated and accelerated. The majority of the people should be empowered to participate in those decisions which affect them, and understand the social, political and economic issues which affect their lives. The Political Literacy and Civic Education Project in Kroo Bay (Freetown Urban Slum) seeks to enable the slum dwellers to contribute to the development of good governance.

There has never been a lack of awareness and concern for the poor socio-economic conditions of the people. The National Development Plan 1974/1975 - 1978/1979 states that

> *A sound economic development strategy requires the rational use of resources (p.4)*
>
> *At present the general condition of health services in the country is not very satisfactory and is adversely affecting the health of the majority...(p.89)*

According to the World Bank, the World Health Organisation (WHO), and the International Monetary Fund (IMF), Sierra Leone has one of the highest infant mortality rates in the world and the Pujehun district has the highest rate in the country where three out of every ten children born die before their first birthday. This situation is due to a number of socio-economic, political and cultural factors. A member of parliament for one of the Pujehun constituencies attributed the causes of high infant mortality to

> *the lethargic disposition of careless, illiterate mothers and superstitious fathers who prefer to consult 'juju' men and witch doctors instead of taking their children for medical care in health centres.*

Government and voluntary organisations have embarked on non-formal education and health programmes aimed at making the adult population

functionally literate, and improving the health and quality of life of the people. The Primary Health Care (PHC), the Maternal and Child Health (MCH) Programme, the Expanded Programme on Immunisation (EPI) and Functional Adult Literacy Programmes (FALP) are examples of the national education and health programmes which saw the combined efforts of the government and non-governmental organisations. Inspite of these and other efforts, the surface of the problem of ill health, illiteracy and poverty has barely been scratched.

The National Development Plan (op.cit) contains a number of objectives and strategies aimed at a solution to the multifarious social and economic problems. The Plan recognises that development cannot be focused on the maximisation of the rate of economic growth alone; a balance between the economic and social dimensions of development has to be struck if social tensions are to be avoided. It also emphasises the fact that

> *if investment is concentrated on the economic sectors with a view to achieving rapid economic growth, and the services such as education, health and social welfare are not expanded sufficiently, serious social tensions may develop (p.11)*

In the same vein, a meeting of policy makers, planners, academicians and other development experts, agreed that "the human dimension is a *sine qua non* of economic recovery". The meeting was held in Khartoum, Sudan from March 5-8, 1988, on the theme 'Human Dimensions of Africa's Economic Recovery and Development', under the aegis of the United Nations.

It is also recognised that lack of skilled and trained manpower may inhibit development and increase the likelihood of educated unemployment if the expansion of educational opportunities is not matched with the creation of adequate employment opportunities. This is one of the problems which Dore (1976) and Oxenham (1984) have extensively discussed and analysed. Other development strategies identified by the Plan include grassroots participation, mobilisation of the population in pursuance of a better quality of life, self-reliance, and cooperation between the private and public sectors of the economy. It is emphasised that while the private sector is given latitude to expand and develop "it must function within the general framework of the Plan and in harmony with the national development objectives." The objectives of the Plan include:

> *Reorienting and restructuring the educational system in order to maximise its contribution to the economic and social progress of the country.*
>
> *Raising the number of literates through primary and out-of-school education.*
>
> *Expansion of social welfare services and emphasis on community development and self-help projects.*
>
> *Institutional development and reforms in public administration (p.12)*

The above strategies and objectives were reinforced by the identification of development projects and the allocation of funds for their implementation. The 1986/1987 Development Estimates contain a number of innovative projects which have implications for education, social welfare and people's participation; these include community projects for the mobilisation of youth and other groups in the production and marketing of agricultural products, rural women and youth programmes.

6 POPULATION EDUCATION AND LITERACY: THE RATIONALE

Population and Human Resources Development in Sierra Leone

There has been a spate of activities relating to population issues and the development of human resources in Sierra Leone. These activities, mainly undertaken by governmental and non-governmental organisations, culminated in the formation, by the Sierra Leone government, of a National Population Commission. An overview of the population-related activities might be useful for the purpose of providing the context and justification for PEA's population education project.

Sierra Leone is confronted with a myriad of problems most of which interact with population issues - inadequate housing, poor health care services, low mortality and mobidity, and under-utilisation of resources. It is realised, and generally agreed, that there is a causal relationship between population and development. The National Development Plan (op.cit.) states that

> *It is generally realised that a rapidly expanding population aggravates many economic and social problems. The increase in demand for food, clothing, housing, sanitation, and drinking water as well as education, health and other social services is largely determined by population growth. [...] This rapid and increasing population growth can be a serious obstacle to development.*

This realisation led the Sierra Leone government to request assistance from the United Nations Fund for Population Activities (UNFPA) to operationalise the Population and Development Planning Project, in October, 1978. The objectives of the Project were

To assist the Government to appreciate fully the importance of the relationship between population and development.

To integrate population variables and issues into National Development Planning.

To co-ordinate all population activities in Sierra Leone.

To establish a National Population Commission.

The earliest activities relating to population issues were undertaken by the Planned Parenthood Association of Sierra Leone (PPASL). According to the National Development Plan (op.cit.p.7), the PPASL does not work specifically to reduce population growth. Its activities centre around Maternal and Child Health (MCH), Family Welfare and Responsible Parenthood among others. Now there is a major thrust on non-formal education in the association's programmes for example motivational programmes which aim at informing and educating the public on "the need for having only those children whom individuals and couples can adequately provide for in terms of health, nutrition, education, clothing and all other necessities of life". Family planning services enable people to be informed on the need for spacing their children or limiting their numbers.

PPASL acknowledges that the low level of literacy inhibits the transmission of written messages. For example, posters which have family planning messages which are widely used risk misinterpretation. This situation underscores the need for literacy which might facilitate the communication process, and enhance the association's information and education activities. In pursuance of this objective a needs assessment survey relating to a joint programme on integrating family planning into adult literacy was undertaken by the People's Educational Association of Sierra Leone (PEASL) and PPASL, in 1986. The author was one of the key participants in this exercise.

The Ministry of Health also played a major role in population and family planning activities. Its Integrated Maternal and Child Health/Family Planning Pilot Project had as its main objective the development, in the Ministry of Health, of suitable approaches for the training of personnel in the Ministry. The Ministry of Education's Population Education Programme sought to integrate population education into social studies (Project SIL/76/P01), and home economics (Project SIL/85/P01). The latter project was launched on 1st September, 1985. In

addition to the development of curricular materials, the training of teachers constituted an important element in both projects.

In 1983 the Faculty of Agriculture, Njala University College hosted an Anglophone Group Country Population Education Workshop. The aim of the workshop was to identify and incorporate population concepts into existing curricula of agricultural/rural training institutions and selected out-reach programmes in selected countries. Other population education/awareness activities included those of the Department of Co-operatives and the Sierra Leone Home Economics Association.

The above activities have been enumerated to show that population education/awareness had been a major objective not only for the Government of Sierra Leone but also for non-governmental organisations. Population issues are inextricably bound with political, social, cultural and religious issues; a well-designed programme of population education can contribute to the diligent handling of these issues. The population education project of the PEA should, therefore, be seen within the context of the development and other efforts by the government.

Strategies for the Eradication of Illiteracy

A good deal of debate has been generated on the issue of literacy and development; the proposition that literacy is a causative factor for development is no longer tenable. It is generally believed that, the creation of a literate environment in the third world countries will not only enhance democracy but will also lead to an improvement of the quality of life of the people.

A number of actions have been taken by governmental, inter-governmental, and non-governmental organisations to help solve the problem of illiteracy among adults and the youth. At the international level strategic recommendations on illiteracy have been made and a variety of measures have been adopted nationally and locally to implement the recommendations. A brief overview of the measures adopted so far might be necessary in an attempt to contextualise the international dimension of the problem of illiteracy.

The International Symposium for Literacy in 1975, resulted in a declaration which gave a new dimension to the concept of literacy namely, its functionality. This symposium had been preceeded by a flurry of literacy activities under the

aegis of UNESCO's Experimental World Literacy Programme (EWLP) 1967-1973. An evaluation of the programme revealed a number of shortcomings in its conception and organisation, in addition to the valuable lessons which have been learned (UNESCO, 1969).

Regionally, the problem of illiteracy has featured prominently in the agenda of regional meetings of government ministries and officials. The regional conferences of ministers of education and those responsible for economic planning in African member states have highlighted the problem and made recommendations for its amelioration, if not solution. Reference has already been made to the 1961 Addis Ababa conference which set the literacy agenda for subsequent meetings in Abidjan in 1964, Nairobi in 1968, Lagos in 1976, and Harare in 1982. The Harare Declaration stressed the potency of education as a development tool and called for the elimination of illiteracy "through a vigorous sustained two-pronged campaign to universalise primary schooling for children and to promote literacy among young people and adults on a massive scale".

At the national level the recommendations of international and regional conferences on education generally and adult education and non-formal education in particular, have been translated into programmes with varying emphases on literacy. In Sierra Leone, for example, the bulk of the literacy and non-formal education activities have been undertaken by voluntary organisations with moral, if not financial, support directly from the central government. The number of organisations and agencies which are engaged in literacy, adult education, and community development is indicative of the quantum of resources being invested, and the magnitude of the task which is being undertaken. The Presidential Address to the Sierra Leone parliament on the 12th June, 1986 states that

> *Government is ware that it still has to cope with the problem of improving non-formal education for the large number of illiterate adults in the country. Government wil, therefore, continue to address this need in active partnership with non-governmental organisations through their various adult education programmes.*

Numerous efforts have been made to debunk the assumptions that literacy causes development, or that it is a precondition for it. For example, the proposition, that the levels of literacy explain the variations in life expectancy among countries more fully than do variables such as Gross National Product (GNP), caloric and protein consumption, the number of doctors per head, and the accessibility to clean drinking water, has been attacked by Wangoola (1983) who describes the studies on which such an assumption has been based, as one-sided and mythical. He calls for studies that would fully explain the relationship between literacy and development, studies which would not only focus on the Third World, but will examine illiteracy in the Third World and its "connection and inter-relationship with the First and Second Worlds", and also between literacy and development. Short of this, he contends, studies will remain a-historical, undialectical and incapable of explaining the phenomenon of illiteracy in the Third World, or its re-emergence in the First and Second Worlds".

The debate on the relationship between literacy and development which has taken place in the pages of DVV's *Adult Education and Development*, and ICAE's (International Council for Adult Education) *Convergence*, has not only been an exercise for the re-education of the educated, but also an occasion for the examination of the issues, myths and misconceptions with regard to literacy and illiteracy.

7 THE PROCESS OF CURRICULUM INTEGRATION

The complexity of the process of curriculum development is evidenced by the existence of several development models, and the emergence of new ones. Since the majority of the models are of direct relevance to school curriculum development, curriculum development in non-formal education becomes problematic because of the apparent desire by non-formal educators to evolve a process that would be seen to reflect the nature of non-formal education, while at the same time, avoiding the soft option and the temptation of transplanting school curriculum development procedures into the non-formal sector.

A variety of methods have been used in the development of curricula on literacy and population education including the integration approach. Integration of population education into literacy programmes involves the introduction of population topics, themes, and concepts into existing curricular materials or those being developed or designed. The methodology which has been used include the **separate unit, infusion** and the **core learning kit approaches.**

The curriculum development process of the PEA revealed the extent of the problems of curriculum development in non-formal education. The majority of those who were involved in the process were products of, and full-time employees in the formal education system; the tendency, therefore, to behave as such was noticeable. Besides, curriculum development in non-formal education in other parts of the world, especially in Asia where a lot of work had been done, had relied on the objectives model with isolated attempts to make the development process look innovative.

PEA's curriculum development adopted an **eclectic approach** using elements of the different models without consciously attempting to evolve a non-formal curriculum development model.

Elements of the 'Objectives Model' popularised by Tyler (1949) and Wheeler (1967), the 'Process Model' by Stenhouse, and the 'Situational Model' by Skilbeck were all evident in PEA's curriculum development. The use of the Objectives Model was evident in the pre-specification of objectives as a basis for ascertaining the extent to which change in the behaviour of the learners had taken place, in terms of knowledge and attitudes; this was necessary given the nature of the subject-population education. Curriculum development by objectives has stood the test of time; even Eisner (1967) and Stenhouse (1970) two of the foremost critics of the objectives movement agree to a limited validity of the role of objectives in curriculum development.

The process model was built into PEA's implementation process. The learning activities which were suggested after each lesson were based on the assumption that the facilitator would help create a learning environment in which the learners would freely explore and discuss issues and problems, and decide on action to solve the problems. Freire's literacy method of **conscientization** which was tried by literacy facilitators in Sierra Leone, also influenced the implementation process.

The procedures on which the curriculum development activities were based, ranging from needs assessment to evaluation, were to a great extent situational. The nature of population education, the problems of values and the cultural context in which the curriculum was developed and implemented necessitated flexibility and adaptability to specific situations. Besides, the curriculum developers lacked clear focus regarding procedures which were 'non-formal' but technical at the same time. There were situations of trial and error in an effort to find a common ground for the adult educators in the curriculum team, and the curriculum "experts" all of whom were from the formal school system. Attempts to transfer school curriculum development model, based on the systems model, into the non-formal curriculum development process were resisted not because there was an alternative 'non-formal curriculum development model' but simply because there were doubts about the systems model which was too formal and appeared too prescriptive.

An important feature of the curriculum development process was the involvement of the public. A national seminar brought together curriculum experts, PEA national and branch officials and interested members of the public to discuss strategies and mechanisms by which a population education curriculum for adults would be developed. By casting the net wider it was hoped

that a variety of ideas would be harnessed for an innovative curriculum development exercise.

Training of Facilitators

The training of facilitators was not part of the original curriculum development plan. The need to train them arose during the process of developing the Facilitator's Guide and the micro teaching sessions, organised as part of the pre-testing of the materials, when participants (facilitators) were required to teach certain lesson topics to a group of adult learners who were invited to participate in the workshops to pre-test the materials.

The curriculum development exercise was a training exercise for all who participated in it. The adult educators in the curriculum development team needed knowledge and skills in curriculum development and population education; the curriculum development "experts" needed a smattering of the principles, methods and techniques of adult education. The facilitators needed knowledge and skills in population education, curriculum development and adult education methods and techniques.

The issues of curriculum development and training of facilitators have exercised the minds of a number of writers on out-of-school curriculum development. The process of training of facilitators although organised and aimed at helping them improve their methods of facilitation is constrained by their low motivation and social status. If teachers in the formal system are held in low public esteem, one can imagine the plight of facilitators (mainly volunteers) in the out-of-school sector. Curriculum development in non-formal education will be incomplete without a comprehensive programme of training of facilitators and institutional development.

Participation of Learners

The involvement of the learners in the curriculum development process was acclaimed as the most important innovative feature of the process. By their participation in the micro teaching sessions to pre-test the materials, the learners had an opportunity of influencing the content and presentation of the final draft materials. Apart from being a significant adult education strategy, the support of the learners was enlisted in preparation for the implementation of the project.

Learners Profile

The groups of learners who were invited to participate in the pre-testing exercise were heterogeneous consisting of learners at different literacy levels - those who could read and write, those who could read and write short sentences but with little comprehension and those who could read, write and comprehend with a degree of proficiency that enabled them to participate effectively in the pre-testing exercise. The groups consisted of farmers, traders, and housewives.

Procedure for Pre-testing the Materials

Micro teaching sessions were organised during which a series of lessons were taught by the facilitators in the presence of the Resource Persons and PEA officials. After the lessons had been taught a 'post-mortem' was done in order to point out flaws and suggest remedies.

Problems

A number of problems related to learning difficulties were identified, such as:

a. Low level of literacy and conceptualisation: The facilitators had difficulty explaining certain demographic concepts such as fertility, mortality and migration.

b. Cultural problem: most of the learners had perceptions of reality which were very difficult to change. For example, the socio-economic problems of polygamy and early marriage, and their impact on the population situation could not be understood by people for whom polygamy was a way of life; for them polygamy had economic advantages.

c. It was observed that the use of analogy in explaining certain population phenomena if not well handled could be counter-productive.

d. Some of the facilitators lacked basic knowledge about the subject and were deficient in communication skills. This observation highlighted the need for a training programme for the facilitators and for an 'expert' in communication to be included in the team of resource persons.

e. Linguistic difficulties: speaking through an interpreter created difficulties. Certain concepts such as "resources" had no equivalent in the local languages and a substitute did not adequately convey the meaning intended.

f. It was observed that the learners did not take kindly to evaluation and did all that they could to avoid being questioned.

g. Some of the suggested learning activities were not too relevant. It was suggested that some of them should be modified so that they reflect the population problem at the community level.

h. The presentation of some of the materials was questioned and a logical sequence was suggested for the purpose of reinforcement.

i. The issue of appropriateness or inappropriateness of teaching aids especially visuals, and the problems which related to the use of inappropriate visuals were discussed. The consensus was that most of the visuals were not expertly prepared.

j. The link between literacy and population education was difficult to make. The tutors did not know how to combine the two: the tendency to teach literacy and population education separately was noticeable.

The involvement of the grassroots in its activities had been a principle on which PEA's programmes were operationalised. The principle was given further practicality when the national secretariat of the association convened five "grassroots meetings" in accordance with the decision of the Fourth Biennial National Delegates' Conference and General Meeting. The meetings were attended by grassroots members who expressed their views on, and discussed several aspects of the organisation and the work of the PEA, especially its curriculum development programme.

8 THE CASE ANALYSIS

People's Educational Association (PEA) Population Education Project was largely influenced by the environmental education programme of the African Adult Education Association (AAEA). In 1980, the AAEA held its 7th Biennial Conference/Workshop in Swaziland on the theme 'Environmental Education through Adult Education Programmes', with sub-themes on 'Population', 'Health' 'Agro-forestry' and 'Urbanisation'. The discussion of these sub-themes revealed a number of issues which had implications for adult education. Participants at the Conference/Workshop, including the author, were urged to take necessary action to create awareness of, and sensitise their members to, the problems identified and their effects on the environment and the quality of life of the people.

The author who was then the national Secretary of the PEA reported on the proceedings of the Conference/Workshop on his return home. PEA's national executive committee directed that the issues raised and the problems identified should be widely discussed by the entire membership of the organisation. Consequently, machinery was set in motion for the branches of PEA to initiate discussions on the report. The time was right, and the climate was favourable for the discussions because the Social Studies Population Education Programme for the formal school system was being developed as part of the social studies curriculum development programme of the Institute of Education of the University of Sierra Leone.

The need for a population education programme which should be integrated into PEA's functional literacy programme was identified during the discussions. It is important to note that although the idea of a population education programme had its origins in Swaziland, the need for an educational programme existed in Sierra Leone although it had not been articulated. The series of discussions which followed the executive committee's directive were to bring this need into focus.

GC

Objectives

The following were identified as objectives of the Population Education Project

- To help learners acquire relevant knowledge, skills, attitudes, and values which will contribute to individual, family and national development.

- To help learners develop the skills of literacy and numeracy which will be the basis for their social and economic development.

- To help learners develop an awareness of population problems and issues and to evolve strategies to bring about attitudinal and behavioural changes in adults.

- To facilitate, through the population education programme, acquisition of basic knowledge on environmental education.

- To facilitate understanding of the factors causing urbanisation and to appreciate the interrelationships between population change at the family, village/town and national levels, and the quality of life.

Following the decision for a population education project, it became necessary to plan the process for its realisation. This was the commencement of the curriculum development process which will now be analysed and discussed.

The process was divided into five phases. Phase two was divided into three levels. 'Level' denotes a progression from what can be described as 'a less difficult' exercise to 'a more difficult exercise' in terms of understanding. The level of difficulty had implications for the strategies which were adopted and the 'choices' which were made in the curriculum development process. Difficulties were experienced by the participants at both the conceptual and practical levels.

The description of the curriculum development process is based on the author's (one of the participants) experience, written sources, mainly reports, personal communication with members of the curriculum development team, and feed-back from PEA teachers. After the description of the curriculum development

process two sets of issues will be analysed viz., issues of curriculum content, and issues of the development process.

The Curriculum Development Process

Phase 1: Organisation of a seminar on 'Development of Instructional Material Incorporating Population Education'

A national seminar on the above theme was organised; branch officials of the PEA and interested members of the public were invited to attend. The main objective of the seminar was to discuss strategies and mechanisms for the development of a curriculum in population education for adults.

The following represent, in general, the major recommendations of the seminar.

- that a Facilitator's Guide on population education be prepared;
- that a thematic approach be used in the preparation of the Guide;
- that the Guide be used as a framework for the development of curriculum materials (Primers and Visuals for the learners);
- that the curriculum development process be accompanied by a vigorous programme of training of facilitators.

The seminar also agreed on the following principles:

a. that the **participation** of the facilitators and learners be enlisted in the development of the curriculum.

b. that **relevance** should be a criterion for the selection of topics and themes.

c. that **methods** and **techniques** of facilitation should reflect current developments in adult education methodology and should be **appropriate.**

d. that a formative **evaluation** mechanism be built into the teaching/learning process.

Phase 2: Curriculum Development Workshops

A series of regional workshops were organised for the purpose of preparing a Facilitator's Guide on Population Education specifically for adult learners.

Level 1

The first level workshop was an orientation on the concept of population education and a discussion of related issues. Curriculum development methods were discussed and the 'infusion method', which the seminar recommended, was clarified. The workshop participants, most of whom were primary school teachers and part-time facilitators of adults, had an opportunity to express their views on specific issues relating to population education and to influence the process of curriculum development.

Levels 2 and 3

The second and third level workshops were devoted to the consideration of the thematic approach, the identification of relevant themes, the specification of objectives and suggestions on learning activities.

The participants, most of whom were primary school teachers engaged in facilitating adult learning on a part-time basis, were drawn from PEA branches and adult literacy centres. The following themes were identified:

- Sanitation and personal hygiene
-Environmental Health
- Proper use and misuse of resources
- The need for a variety of foods
- Growing different types of crops
- Occupation and employment
- Causes and effects of unemployment
- Co-operatives
- Parent-child relationship
- Use and abuse of drugs
- Home management

- Husband-wife relationship
- Family size and resources
- Migration
- Overcrowding.

The following procedure was adopted:

Statement of the theme

Identification of possible lesson topics based on the theme, for example, on 'Sanitation and Personal Hygiene', a possible lesson topic was 'What is sanitation and personal hygiene?'

Statement of main ideas; for example, The use of streams for the disposal of garbage and human excreta will endanger health.

Formulation of specific objectives; for example, To enable learners identify insanitary conditions in their surroundings.

Learning activities; these consisted of a series of lessons based on the possible lesson topics and suggestions on how the lessons should be designed. The number of lessons varied from one lesson topic to the other, and some of the lessons had community projects. The purpose of a project was to enable learners to use their knowledge to catalyse action towards a desired situation. It was intended to provide opportunities for action and reflection.

Selection of teaching aids

Discussion of assessment mechanisms; these were built into the development process.

The lessons were sequenced so that a subsequent lesson would build on a previous one. Convenient points for the integration of literacy and numeracy concepts were identified.

The following is an illustration of the thematic approach which was the basis for the development of a Facilitator's Guide:

	THEME	
These are based on the theme, The Number of lesson topics would vary from one lesson to another.	Possible lesson topics	1
These are generalisations derived from the lesson topics.	Main Ideas	2
These are based on the main ideas and represent the changes which are expected in the behaviour of the learners.	Specific objectives	3
These activities are designed to create learning oportunities.	Learning activities	4
These are suggestions which should guide decisions on teaching aids (visuals) which can be made from locally available resources.	Teaching learning aids	5
The fact that this is the last in the sequence does not mean that it should be left till the end. Assesment must be built into every stage of the learning transaction. It was agreed that assessment should be diagnostic, formative and summative.	Assessment	6

Level 4

The fourth workshop was devoted to the writing of materials; participants were divided into groups and each group was assigned a number of themes on which to develop materials based on the agreed procedure.

Phase 3: Review Workshop

A review workshop was organised for the purpose of reviewing and restructuring the materials developed. Participants consisted of the resource persons, and an artist/illustrator. The following criteria formed the basis of the review:

content verification
lesson structure
suitability of objectives
appropriateness of learning activities
presentation of the materials
relevance of teaching aids
visual perception

Phase 4: Pre-testing of Materials

After the review workshop the materials were produced and pre-tested. Three regional workshops were organised to which adult learners and teachers were invited. The purpose of the workshops was to teach the materials and to enable adult learners evaluate them on the basis of their suitability, relevance and appropriateness. The participation of the learners in determining the final product was worthwhile not only in terms of the revision which was done but also in fulfilment of the desire to give meaning and expression to the principle of grassroots participation. The micro teaching sessions provided further opportunities for diagnosing problems which the facilitators were likely to face during the implementation of the project.

Instructional materials for non-formal education audiences have to be developed around the activities, interests and concerns of the learners. The materials should be illustrated with drawings which are easily understood and

relevant. The heterogeneity of the non-formal education audiences present, at times, insurmountable difficulties in determining what is relevant, interesting and of concern to all given the variety of needs, interests, cultural backgrounds and the environmental conditions in which they live. Pre-testing of materials with a representative sample of the audience provides information on which the suitability of the materials can be assessed. It also provides information on the effectiveness of the materials in conveying the messages intended, the level of understanding by the learners, and helps to identify gaps which need to be filled.

Pre-testing took the following stages:

- thematic discussion and clarification of issues
- reading and explanation to determine the level of understanding
- test of visual perception

After the pre-testing of the materials, they were revised based on the recommendations of the pre-testing workshops, produced and disseminated for use in all PEA classes. Supervisors were appointed to monitor the use of the materials and to provide feed-back to the national secretariat which was co-ordinating the project. The use of the materials lasted for one year after which an external evaluator and a team of internal evaluators, including the author, was appointed to evaluate the entire programme.

Phase 5: Evaluation

Why Evaluation?

There were several reasons for the evaluation. Firstly, PEA and their sponsors the DVV, wanted to ascertain through empirical evidence the strengths and weaknesses of the project, and whether a basis for its continuation existed. Secondly, the evaluation was a management strategy which was intended to identify areas for improvement relating to specific practices and procedures; (this was essentially diagnostic). Thirdly, information on the impact of the project at the micro level was required, and on the appropriateness of the instructional process in the different socio-cultural milieu. Fourthly, it was intended to ascertain the efficacy of co-operation with other agencies on the field. Fifthly,

information was required on the cost-effectiveness of the project and the criteria for resource allocation to PEA branches. The evaluation team utilised Eraut's (1974) *Analysis of Curriculum Materials* in deciding on the evaluation criteria.

The evaluation criteria were based on the objectives of the population education programme; these were grouped under formative, diagnostic, and summative evaluation.

FORMATIVE EVALUATION

a. The relationship between the planned project and the implemented project.

b. Gaps in the teaching/learning strategies.

c. The competency of the facilitators to handle concepts and issues.

d. The influence of variables such as cultural setting, learning environment and cognitive styles on the teaching/learning situation.

e. The literacy level of the learners relative to the knowledge gained in population education.

f. Learners' profile and its effects on the programme.

DIAGNOSTIC EVALUATION

It was decided that the information derived would be used for placement purposes, for remedial work, and for investigations into socio-economic and cultural constraints.

SUMMATIVE EVALUATION

This involved an overall assessment of the project with regard to functional literacy level, the achievement of the learners, performance by the teachers, the impact of the community projects suggested in the learning activities, identification of problems and constraints in general, identification of immediate, short-term and future needs of the learners.

One of the recommendations made by the evaluation team, and which was based on an identified need, was the preparation of graded reading materials to suit the interests, needs and abilities of the three groups of learners that is the beginners, intermediate and advanced learners. Another recommendation related to the training of facilitators was that training should be a permanent feature of the population education programme so that facilitators who leave could be replaced without difficulty.

CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT PROCESS FOR THE INTEGRATION OF POPULATION EDUCATION INTO THE ADULT LITERACY PROGRAMME OF THE PEOPLE'S EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

Curriculum Development in Population Education

The issues and problems which arise from curriculum development, in general, are multifarious and complex; an understanding of them is necessary if a justification for the decisions which are made before, during, and after the curriculum development process is to be tenable.

A number of important issues, divided into two categories, can be discerned in the curriculum development process of the PEA. These categories are:

i. Issues of Curriculum Content

These include;

- integration;
- visual perception;
- linguistic issues and
- learning materials.

ii. Issues of the Development Process

These include;

- external influences;
- the curriculum development process;
- training of facilitators;
- participation of the learners and
- organisation and development.

Issues of Curriculum Content

INTEGRATION

The decision to integrate or infuse population education concepts into PEA's existing adult literacy programme was taken without much thought regarding the technicalities involved. The primary consideration, when the decision to integrate was taken, was the use of an existing programme, thereby avoiding the task of developing a separate programme in population education with all its implications, including financial. The integration process gave rise to certain operational problems; there was no member of the curriculum development team with adequate knowledge of the **relationships** between adult literacy and population education; the team of curriculum developers consisted of adult educators on the one hand, and population education experts on the other; the facilitators who also participated in the curriculum development exercise had little or no knowledge about curriculum development or population education. Given the uncertainty about how to proceed, valuable time was lost in trying to find a suitable mechanism of integration. Although lessons were learned in the process, the cost of such lessons was high in terms of time, material and financial resources.

The plug-in points for population education concepts had to be identified, and a mode of infusion determined. The most difficult aspect after these decisions had been taken was how to teach literacy and population education. This problem necessitated a series of training workshops for the facilitators.

Two members of the curriculum development team, including the author, were offered a study tour by UNESCO to visit population education projects in Thailand, Malaysia and Bangladesh. The study tour in Thailand included a three week Group Training Course in Population Education Curriculum

Development, organised by the UNESCO Regional Office for Education in Asia and Oceania. The experiences acquired contributed, to some extent, to the solution of the technical, curricular and pedagogical problems which had attended the curriculum development exercise.

The systems approach to curriculum development was in vogue in the countries visited and the training programme in Thailand, was based on that approach for both the school and out-of-school sectors. Given this situation, the participants had to be creative in using elements of the systems approach in determining a mechanism that would be and be seen to be non-formal. It is important to state that there was very little or nothing by way of innovative curriculum development approaches specifically for non-formal education in the countries visited.

VISUAL PERCEPTION

The issue of visual perception relates to andragogical considerations. The evaluation of the population education project which was undertaken as part of the curriculum development process provided information with regard to learning difficulties. A sample of eighty new and intermediate learners from seven classes was used in a test of visual perception. Learners in the sample were asked to interpret pictures prepared to illustrate the lessons on sources of drinking water, sanitation and personal hygiene, family size and resources, water pollution and husband-wife relationships. Thirty percent of the learners had difficulties in receiving the information which the pictures were intended to convey. The difficulties identified were as follows:

Difficulties by learners in interpreting pictures with lots of detail (the fewer the detail the easier it was for the pictures to be comprehended).

Some difficulty in interpreting three-dimensional pictures.

Difficulty in relating details to the whole picture, or in analysing its constituent parts.

The reasons for the above difficulties were given as follows:

- slow rate of sensory perception.
- poor eyesight (short or long sightedness).
- inability to decipher detail in the pictures clearly.
- inability of the learners to vary their visual perceptive view from gestalt or holistic to serialist and vice versa, in an attempt to have maximum comprehension of the pictures.
- inability to comprehend ideas in the pictures sequentially.
- variation in how adults learn.

Learners in the sample consisted of members of eight ethnic groups; cultural and sub-cultural differences were less significant in accounting for difficulties in visual perception. However, the interpretation of visuals had some association with the socio-cultural backgrounds of the learners. The construction of visuals should, therefore, take account of this and their testing should ensure that the visuals communicate the messages intended by the communicator.

There are a number of research findings pertaining to visual literacy in Africa. It is concluded, for example, that since members of rural communities have had very little exposure to printed materials, pictures and illustrations represent new experiences for them. It is believed that many illustrations prepared for rural audiences are under-utilised or not utilised at all. The explanation which is given for this is that in preparing the visuals, the level of perception of the intended audiences have not been taken into account. There has been a "professional gap" in communication. The following list represents some of the research conclusions pertaining to visual communication/literacy.

THE LINGUISTIC ISSUE

The linguistic issue in literacy and non-formal education is a source of problems in curriculum development in non-formal education especially in literacy education. The choice of a language poses a number of problems in a multilingual society. In Sierra Leone, for example, there are fourteen ethnic languages in addition to English which is the official language and the medium of instruction at all levesl of the educational system, and Creole which is the lingua franca.

In general, literacy for adults has been in English. The Canadian University Services Overseas (CUSO) Work-Oriented Functional Literacy Project experimented with the use of Mende and Themne. This experiment met with some resistance from the learners who felt that English, apart from being the language of education and government, was of such social and economic importance that it was worth learning.

PEA's adult literacy programme had been in English since its inception. Although the use of the local languages had been discussed, it was felt that the programme should be continued in English because of the technical, financial, and curricular implications which a change would have. During the pretesting of the instructional materials, some of the learners expressed the desire to be taught in English which would enable them to understand what their children were doing at school. They also wanted access to government offices where English is the official language.

The debate on the use of mother-tongue in education against education in a foreign language has been based on three perspectives namely, the theoretical, the experimental, and the practical. The theoretical arguments which are basically psychological are related to children in schools. These arguments have formed the basis for experiments to prove whether the medium of instruction is a variable, and whether English or mother-tongue has greater effects on the child's capacity to learn at a faster rate.

The linguistic issue complicates the literacy issue because literacy has to be determined in a given linguistic context. The literacy rate of 24% (UNDP 1994) given for Sierra Leone raises the question "in which language?" Until it is known what the literacy rates in the different languages are a true picture of the state of literacy or illiteracy will be difficult to see.

EMPHASIS ON MATERIALS

The importance of the role of the facilitators in a non-formal education project was realised when it was decided to start with the development of curriculum materials for facilitators. The nature of population education, which is heavily value-laden, requires facilitators who are adequately prepared for its implementation. The development of the materials was combined with the education and training of the facilitators on population education. Given the fact that the majority of the facilitators were trained to teach primary school children, training for adult and non-formal education and, population education could not be underestimated. It was also hoped that having participated in its development, the facilitators would show commitment to its implementation, and would see the curriculum as theirs.

THEMATIC APPROACH

The adoption of a thematic approach facilitated the identification of lesson topics. Given the interrelationships between and among topics, it was possible, having identified the themes, to avoid overlap and unnecessary repetition.

Issues of the Development Process

EXTERNAL INFLUENCES

Although the population education project was influenced by the AAEA Swaziland conference/workshop on environmental education, it had its origin in a need that existed but which had not been articulated. When the idea for a population education project for adults was mooted, people became conscious of the importance of such an educational programme given the environmental and other problems which affected the majority of Sierra Leoneans. The importance of an external factor in activating, not creating, the need should be noted. The project could not have been operationalised without money and other material resources which the German Adult Education Association (DVV) provided. DVV had nothing to do with the conception of the project or its design; it was merely giving a financial response to a need that had been identified and to which it subscribed. This financial response was given under the terms of the **Agreement** signed between the Government of Sierra Leone and the Federal Republic of Germany. Article 4 of the **Agreement** provides for co-operation in

the production, testing and evaluation of teaching and learning materials for adult education. It was under this provision that financial support was provided for PEA's population education and literacy project.

9 CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT IN NON-FORMAL EDUCATION: A SITUATIONAL IMPERATIVE

Non-formal education emerged as both an alternative, and a partial solution to the problems which were seen by one school of thought as primarily and essentially economic and political, and only secondarily educational.

The discussions and conclusions of international meetings on education such as those in Addis Ababa in 1961 and Harare in 1982, and the writings and studies on "education and development", generated tremendous interest in the problems of education and their effects on development. What can be concluded from the deliberations of international meetings on education, and from the writings and studies on education and development is that the expansion of formal education was not in consonance with the absorptive capacity of the economy and the labour market. Manpower studies which could have guided the planners were either grossly inadequate or non-existent.

Education planners were at a loss to understand the dynamics of the world and, or the full implications of stagnation and inflation, twin problems which bedevilled the economic scene in the 70s. What is more, the politics of educational development made nonsense of any attempt at rational planning or of systematic investigation of the dysfunction's of the educational and economic systems.

The measures taken by the Government of Sierra Leone to reform the school curriculum were ineffective; consequently there were difficulties which attended the reform process. For example, the vocationalisation of the curriculum, in my view, was counterproductive; instead of effecting desirable changes in attitudes as far as practical work was concerned it reinforced the negative attitudes already engendered as a result of the apparent dichotomy between those who were shepherded into vocational streams (the so-called less able pupils), and those who

went to 'grammar' schools. Vocational education became a caricature of its counterpart in developed countries and attracted only those whom the educational system had branded as failures. The stigma attached to vocational education, the derision to which it was subjected to and the starvation of resources which it faced alltogether made it an option for those who had no choice.

The policy of dividing and separating children at a very early age into vocational and academic categories is psychologically unsound; it is also at variance with the principle of equality of educational opportunities for all children which the 1970 **White Paper on Educational Policy** in Sierra Leone, unequivocally endorsed. Given the vocational character of non-formal education it seems likely that it will be attractive to the "left-outs", the "push-outs", the "drop-outs" and the already stigmatised non-formal education clientele, the so-called "rural poor".

It has been concluded that non-formal education cannot solve political problems of education. Educational reforms should be accompanied by structural transformation without which reforms, however far-reaching will be at best cosmetic and at worst meaningless. The educational system should be restructured in such a way that there is parity of esteem between the formal and the non-formal education sectors. Routes of access between the two sectors should be created and re-entry opportunities provided for those who leave, or drop out of the system and who desire re-entry.

Education and training should take on new meaning for those who pursue it; it should be related to life and to living and should emphasise self-employment as a terminal objective. Schools should emphasise practical and productive work in order to give work a moral and instructive value. By so doing, the work ethic would be instilled in the future producers and consumers of goods and services. The curriculum should reflect the economic and other circumstances of the environment in which the schools are located, and should never be seen to create a division between rural and urban areas, or attempting to produce elites on the one hand and *Hoi Polloi* on the other. Freedom of choice, equality of opportunities and unencumbered access, should be the guiding principles of curricular reforms. Any attempt to relate non-formal education to poverty and deprivation should be resisted because of the apparent inequity which such a relationship implies. *Non-formal education should be for all and not for the rural poor*. Developing countries like Sierra Leone cannot afford the luxury of

one type of education for the poor and another for those who are not.

It is generally agreed that school curriculum theory cannot be transplanted into the non-formal sector, and that the curriculum categories of schooling cannot be uncritically accepted by adult and non-formal educators. While the dominance of the traditional curriculum is recognised and its value and status accepted, though not unquestionably, it remains incumbent on adult and non-formal educators to contribute to the development of a curriculum theory which is specific to non-formal education.

A noticeable gap which need to be filled in non-formal education at present is the inadequacy of a theoretical framework which should undergird the conceptual development of curriculum development in non-formal education; this is necessary if a field of educational study in curriculum development in non-formal education is to develop. The tendency to overemphasise practice to the detriment of theory is unfortunate; theory and practice are mutually supportive; each should inform and enhance the other.

Non-formal education is now called upon to respond to the unintended consequences of technological development, ruptured social and economic systems, injustice, poverty, deprivation and the threat to world peace. The development of a theoretical framework should be based on research, planned and purposeful field activities, surveys, case and trend studies and documentary analyses.

There are a number of conclusions which can be reached in addition to those already stated, albeit briefly. Together, they constitute the quintessence of this book which has sought to examine curriculum development in non-formal education.

Contingent Nature of Curriculum Development in Non-formal Education

The first conclusion is that curriculum development in non-formal education has to be situational or contingent. This contingent nature results from a number of factors among which are the following:

A. THE NATURE OF NON-FORMAL EDUCATION

The literature on non-formal education is replete with a number of characteristics

of non-formal education most of which have implications for curriculum development: these include flexibility, structural, content and method diversity; and learner, life, and environment orientation.

B. THE CHARACTERISTICS OF THE CLIENTELE

The non-formal education clientele is heterogeneous consisting of groups and sub-groups with diverse learning needs. These include literate and illiterate adults, out-of-school youth and adolescents, the aged and the unemployed among others. The characteristics of learners are major factors which determine the content and methods of the curriculum in addition to the duration and location of the programmes. These characteristics are major factors for the design and development of non-formal education curriculum.

C. VARIABILITY AND VOLATILITY OF THE NON-FORMAL ENVIRONMENT

The non-formal learning environment is subject to constant changes due to the changing needs and circumstances of the learners. Changes in the socio-economic environment will impact the non-formal learning environment for example changes in technology will result in new learning needs and will affect the responses which non-formal education can make to its clientele. Political factors can also affect what is taught and how it is taught given the 'politicality' of non-formal education. In many developing countries in Africa, there is little or no freedom to teach or learn.

Given these factors, non-formal education does not lend itself to rigid, systematic planning; a number of variables, or contingencies have to be taken into account and a variety of curriculum development models and approaches. Each of these has relevance for non-formal education curriculum development, and thus have to be considered when developing a curriculum.

The curriculum development process of the People's Educational Association of Sierra Leone (PEASL), demonstrated an eclectic approach. Elements from different curriculum development models were discernible - these ranged from the objectives (as in the systematic approach of Tyler (1949), to contingencies (as in the contingency model of Squires (1988). The explanation which can be given for what can be called **a pluralist approach** can be found in expediency rather

than in logic. Although all the curriculum developers in the project were schooled in the rational planning tradition the adult-educators among them were unravelling the myths and realities in the philosophical and pedagogical exposition of Paulo Freire. Consequently there was uncertainty on how to proceed hence the unintended move towards trial and error, and learning by doing. Valuable lessons with regard to those factors on which curriculum development in non-formal education in specific situations depends, were learned from this. A conceptual framework based on some of these factors has been presented by Bhola's (1979) "core/interface model", Squires' "contingency model" and the author's "determinants of non-formal curriculum" model. Non-formal curricula must take into account several key factors - learners (students), tutors (staff) and environment (setting).

Participation of the Learners

The second conclusion is about the learners' participation in the process of curriculum development. The importance of the learner is recognised in the emerging models on curriculum development in the non-formal sector. According to Squires (1988) "Teaching and training, [...], are not only a matter of 'what' but 'who'. Both Squires and Bhola suggest learner analysis as a factor for curriculum development. The centrality of the learner is shown in the author's illustration (p.27)*. Participation has both a moral and pedagogical value. It enhances the democratisation of the curriculum development process and helps to facilitate the implementation of curricula, or curriculum development projects or programmes. It is now an accepted principle that the learners should be involved at every stage of the programming process.

Staff Development

The third conclusion relates to staff development. Staff development enables the facilitators and other non-facilitating staff to improve their knowledge and skills in the area of curriculum development including implementation. The process of participation is itself a process of individual development and the building of motivation and commitment. Facilitator development should not be an on-off activity; it should, like evaluation, be a permanent feature of curriculum development.

Facilitator development can take a number of forms including periodic review of the curriculum, in-service training, consultation on matters pertaining to the curriculum, and its evaluation. Whatever form it takes the objective should be related to the improvement of the facilitators performance.

Organisation Development

There cannot be an effective curriculum development in a static organisational setting. Organisation development aims at improving the quality of life of its members and better organisational performance. Development involves the members of the organisation in the diagnosis, transformation, and evaluation of their own social system. With regard to curriculum development, it seeks to ensure coherence in the developments taking place in the curriculum with those of the organisation. Curriculum innovations require a dynamic organisational structure if planned change is to have the desired results. The effectiveness with which curriculum management is carried out depends ultimately on the " organisation climate" in terms of the readiness and willingness of people to respond to change and facilitate it.

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Curriculum Development in Non-Formal Education comes at a critical time when strategies and tactics are being discussed on how to make education, at all levels and in all sectors accessible, equitable, cost effective, functional and relevant. The book builds the non-formal curriculum subject in two main facets - theory and practice.

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